

MATH1013 Calculus I

Introduction to Functions¹

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Integration I (Chapter 4)

Anti-derivatives

Initial value problems

Motion problems

Definite integrals

Riemann Sums

Integrable functions

Primitives

Definition Let $F(x)$ and $f(x)$ be two given functions defined on an interval I . If

$$F'(x) = f(x), \quad \text{holds for all } x \text{ in } I$$

then we say $F(x)$ is called a *primitive* or an *anti-derivative* of $f(x)$. We use the notation

$$F(x) = \int f(x) dx$$

to denote that F is a *primitive* of f , and we call the process of finding a primitive F for f *indefinite integration* (or simply *integration*).

Examples

Remark We note that if $F(x)$ is a primitive of $f(x)$, then $F(x) + C$, where C is an **arbitrary constant**, is also a **primitive** of $f(x)$ since

$$(F(x) + C)' = F'(x) + 0 = f(x).$$

We call C a **constant of integration**. **Examples**

- $\int x \, dx = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + C,$
- $\int 2x \, dx = x^2 + C,$
- $\int x^2 \, dx = \frac{1}{3}x^3 + C,$
- $\int x^8 \, dx = \frac{1}{9}x^9 + C.$

Non-uniqueness

Recall from that **Theorem 4.11** that if the derivatives of two functions F_1, F_2 agree on I : i.e., $F_1'(x) = F_2'(x)$, then F_1, F_2 differ by a constant. That is,

$$F_1(x) = F_2(x) + k, \text{ holds for all } x \text{ in } I$$

for some **constant** k .

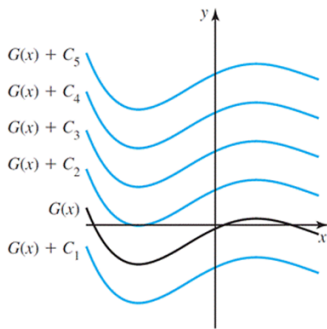
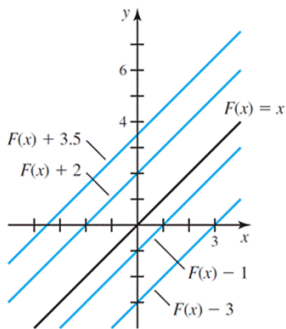


Figure: (Publisher Figure 4.78)

Primitives of monomials x^p

Theorem 4.17 Let $p \neq -1$ be a real number. Then

$$\int x^p dx = \frac{1}{p+1} x^{p+1} + C,$$

for some arbitrary constant C .

Examples

- $\int \sqrt[2]{x^3} dx = \int x^{3/2} dx = \frac{x^{3/2+1}}{\frac{3}{2}+1} + C = \frac{2}{5}x^{5/2} + C$
- $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt[2]{x^3}} dx = \int x^{-3/2} dx = \frac{x^{-3/2+1}}{-3/2+1} + C = \frac{-2}{\sqrt{x}} + C$
- $\int \frac{1}{x^2} dx = \int x^{-2} dx = \frac{x^{-2+1}}{-2+1} + C = \frac{-1}{x} + C.$
- $\int \frac{1}{x^4} dx = \frac{x^{-4+1}}{-4+1} + C = \int x^{-4} dx = \frac{-1}{3x^3} + C.$

Exercises

1. $\int x^{15} dx,$

2. $\int x^{-12} dx,$

3. $\int x^{-12} dx,$

4. $\int 3x^4 dx,$

5. $\int \sqrt{x} dx,$

6. $\int \sqrt[4]{x^5} dx,$

7. $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt[7]{x^8}} dx$

8. $\int \frac{4}{\sqrt[4]{x}} dx.$

Remark Differentiate your answers to verify whether they are correct.

Linear combinations

Since

$$\frac{d(f + g)}{dx} = \frac{df}{dx} + \frac{dg}{dx} \text{ and } \frac{d(kf)}{dx} = k \frac{df}{dx},$$

where k is a constant. So we deduce

$$\int f(x) + g(x) dx = \int f(x) dx + \int g(x) dx,$$

and

$$\int k f(x) dx = k \int f(x) dx,$$

where k is a constant. We can easily generalize the above consideration to **linear combination** of $\{f_1, \dots, f_n\}$

$$\begin{aligned} & \int k_1 f_1(x) + k_2 f_2(x) + \dots + k_n f_n(x) dx \\ &= k_1 \int f_1(x) dx + k_2 \int f_2(x) dx + \dots + k_n \int f_n(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

where $\{k_1, \dots, k_n\}$.

Finding primitive examples

1.

$$\begin{aligned}\int x^{3/2} + \frac{1}{x^{3/2}} + \frac{2}{x^3} dx &= \int x^{3/2} dx + \int x^{-3/2} dx + 2 \int x^{-3} dx \\ &= \left(\frac{2}{5} x^{5/2} + c_1 \right) - 2x^{-\frac{1}{2}} + c_2 + (-x^{-2} + c_3) \\ &= \frac{2}{5} x^{5/2} - 2x^{-\frac{1}{2}} - x^{-2} + C.\end{aligned}$$

2.

$$\begin{aligned}\int y^{1/2}(1+y)^2 dy &= \int y^{1/2}(1+2y+y^2) dy \\ &= \int y^{1/2} dy + \int 2y^{3/2} dy + \int y^{5/2} dy = \frac{2}{3} y^{3/2} + \frac{4}{5} y^{5/2} + \frac{2}{7} y^{7/2} + C.\end{aligned}$$

3.

$$\begin{aligned}\int \frac{1}{t^{1/2}}(1+t)^2 dt &= \int t^{-1/2}(1+2t+t^2) dt \\ &= \int t^{-1/2} dt + 2 \int t^{1/2} dt + \int t^{3/2} dt = 2t^{1/2} + \frac{4}{3} t^{3/2} + \frac{2}{5} t^{5/2} + C.\end{aligned}$$

Primitives of trigonometric functions

Indefinite Integrals of Trigonometric Functions

$$1. \frac{d}{dx}(\sin ax) = a \cos ax \quad \rightarrow \quad \int \cos ax \, dx = \frac{1}{a} \sin ax + C$$

$$2. \frac{d}{dx}(\cos ax) = -a \sin ax \quad \rightarrow \quad \int \sin ax \, dx = -\frac{1}{a} \cos ax + C$$

$$3. \frac{d}{dx}(\tan ax) = a \sec^2 ax \quad \rightarrow \quad \int \sec^2 ax \, dx = \frac{1}{a} \tan ax + C$$

$$4. \frac{d}{dx}(\cot ax) = -a \csc^2 ax \quad \rightarrow \quad \int \csc^2 ax \, dx = -\frac{1}{a} \cot ax + C$$

$$5. \frac{d}{dx}(\sec ax) = a \sec ax \tan ax \quad \rightarrow \quad \int \sec ax \tan ax \, dx = \frac{1}{a} \sec ax + C$$

$$6. \frac{d}{dx}(\csc ax) = -a \csc ax \cot ax \quad \rightarrow \quad \int \csc ax \cot ax \, dx = -\frac{1}{a} \csc ax + C$$

Figure: (Publisher Table 4.9)

Primitives of various special functions

Other Definite Integrals

$$\frac{d}{dx}(e^{ax}) = ae^{ax} \rightarrow \int e^{ax} dx = \frac{1}{a} e^{ax} + C$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\ln|x|) = \frac{1}{x} \rightarrow \int \frac{dx}{x} = \ln|x| + C \quad (\text{for } x \neq 0)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left[\sin^{-1} \left(\frac{x}{a} \right) \right] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} \rightarrow \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} = \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{x}{a} \right) + C \quad (\text{for } |x| \leq |a|, a > 0)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left[\tan^{-1} \left(\frac{x}{a} \right) \right] = \frac{a}{x^2 + a^2} \rightarrow \int \frac{dx}{x^2 + a^2} = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{x}{a} \right) + C \quad (\text{for all } x \text{ and } a \neq 0)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left(\sec^{-1} \left| \frac{x}{a} \right| \right) = \frac{a}{x\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}} \rightarrow \int \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}} = \frac{1}{a} \sec^{-1} \left| \frac{x}{a} \right| + C \quad (\text{for } |x| \geq a > 0)$$

Figure: (Publisher Table 4.10)

Examples

- (p. 320) $\int (\sin 2y + \cos 3y) dy$
- (p. 315) $\int (\sec^2 3x + \cos \frac{x}{2}) dx$
- (p. 316) $\int (e^{-10x} + e^{x/10}) dx$
- (p. 316) $\int \frac{4}{\sqrt{9-x^2}} dx,$
- (p. 316) $\int \frac{1}{16t^2+1} dt.$

Initial value problems

The simplest **differential equation of first order** is of the form

$$\begin{aligned}f'(x) &= G(x), & \text{where } G(x) \text{ is a given function;} \\f(a) &= b, & \text{where } a, b \text{ are given initial condition.}\end{aligned}$$

The $f'(x) = G(x)$ which is called a **first order differential equation**, together with the initial value condition is called an **initial value problem (IVP)**.

An example of IVP

Example (p. 317) Solve the **IVP**

$$f'(x) = x^2 - 2x,$$

$$f(1) = \frac{1}{3}.$$

So a simple integration yields

$$f(x) = \int (x^2 - 2x) dx = \frac{1}{3}x^3 - x^2 + C.$$

But $\frac{1}{3} = f(1) = \frac{1}{3} \cdot 1^3 - 1^2 + C$ implies that $C = 1$. So

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^3 - x^2 + 1.$$

Sketch of the last IVP

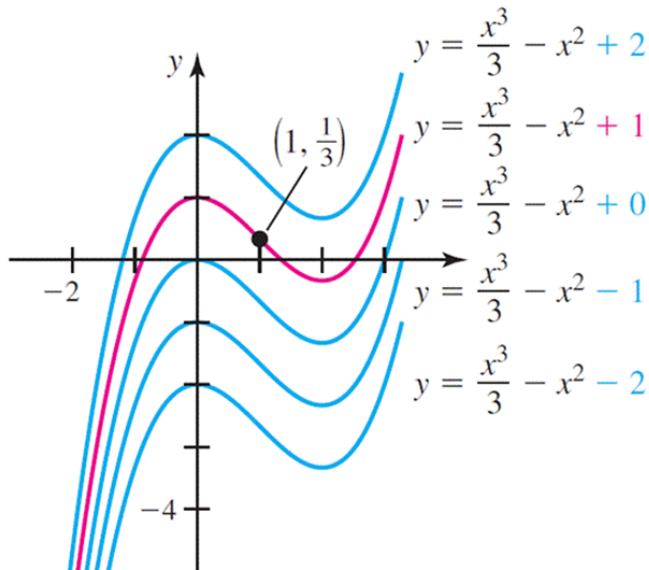


Figure: (Publisher Figure 4.87)

Example 6 (p. 318)

Race runner A begins at the point $s(0) = 0$ and runs with velocity $v(t) = 2t$. Runner B starts at the point $S(0) = 8$ and runs with velocity $V(t) = 2$. Find the positions of the runner for $t \geq 0$ and determine who is ahead at $t = 6$.

We have two IVP here. Namely,

$$\frac{ds}{dt} = v(t) = 2t, \quad s(0) = 0.$$

with solution $s(t) = t^2$ and

$$\frac{dS}{dt} = V(t) = 2, \quad S(0) = 8$$

with solution $S(t) = 2t + 8$. Therefore, the two runners meet when $s(t) = S(t)$, meaning that $t^2 - 2t - 8 = 0$. That is, $t = 4$.

Example 6 (p. 318) figure

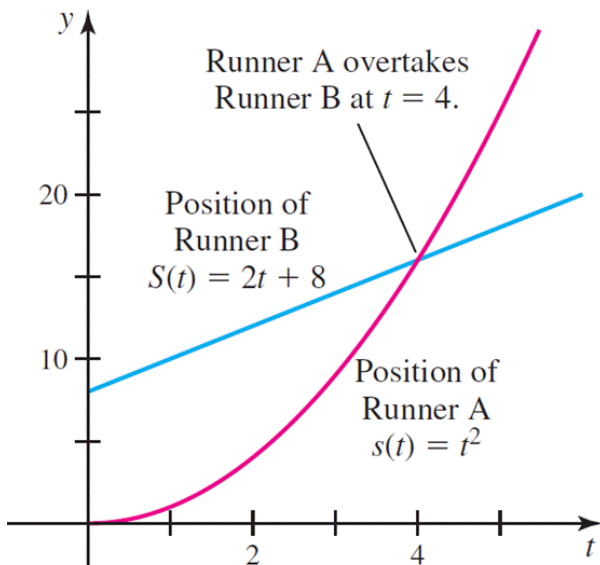


Figure: (Publisher Figure 4.88)

Example 7 (p. 319)

Neglecting air resistance, the motion of an object moving vertically near Earth's surface is determined by the acceleration due to gravity, which is approx. 9.8 m/s^2 . Suppose a stone is **thrown vertically upward** at $t = 0$ with a velocity of 40 m/s from the edge of a cliff that is 100 m above a river.

1. Find the **velocity** $v(t)$ of the object, for $t \geq 0$, and in particular, when the **object starts** to fall back down.
2. Find the **position** $s(t)$ of the object, for $t \geq 0$.
3. Find the **maximum height** of the object above the river.
4. With **what speed** does the object strike the river?

Example 7 (p. 319)

We measure the **height** function $s(t)$ from the **sea level** and adopt the **upward direction** to be our **positive direction**. Thus the initial height is $s(0) = 100$.

(1) The **acceleration** $\frac{dv}{dt}$ due to gravity **pointing to the centre** of Earth, which is therefore **negative**. In fact we have the **IVP**:

$$\frac{dv(t)}{dt} = v'(t) = -9.8, \quad v(0) = 40$$

Solving the DE gives $v(t) = -9.8t + C$. Thus

$$40 = v(0) = -9.8(0) + C,$$

giving $C = 40$. Hence $v(t) = -9.8t + 40$.

The object starts to fall back down after it reached the maximum height, where $v(t) = 0$, that is, when $v(t) = -9.8t + 40 = 0$, giving $t \approx 4.1$ s.

Example 7 (p. 319)

(2) The height $s(t)$ satisfies the IVP

$$\frac{ds(t)}{dt} = v(t) = -9.8t + 40, \quad s(0) = 100.$$

Solving the DE yields

$$s(t) = -4.9t^2 + 40t + C.$$

The initial condition $s(0) = 100$ implies that $100 = s(0) = C$. So

$$s(t) = -4.9t^2 + 40t + 100.$$

Example 7 (p. 319)

(3) As a result the **maximum height** is reached when the parabolic $s(t)$ is at its **critical point**:

$$0 = \frac{ds}{dt} = v(t) = -9.8t + 40,$$

That is, when $t \approx 4.1$ s. Thus the **maximum height** is

$$s(4.1) \approx 182 \text{ m.}$$

(4) The object hits the sea when $s(t) = 0$. Solving the quadratic Eqn $s(t) = 0$ gives us **two roots**, namely $t \approx -2$ (which is to be discarded) and $t \approx 10.2$. So the velocity of the object when it strike the sea is given by

$$v(10.2) \approx -9.8(10.2) + 400 = -59.96 \approx -60.$$

Example 7 (p. 319)

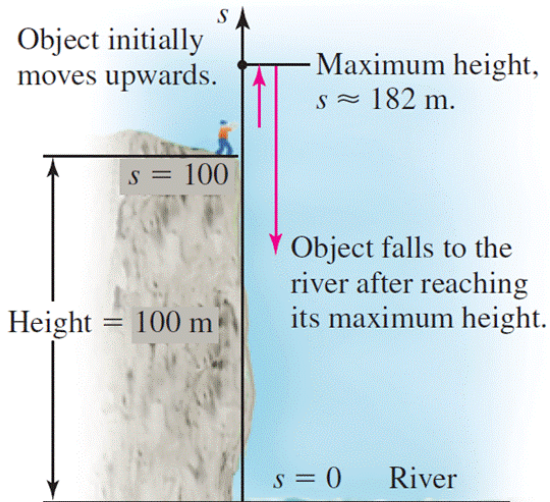


Figure: (Publisher Figure 4.89)

Example 7 (p. 319)

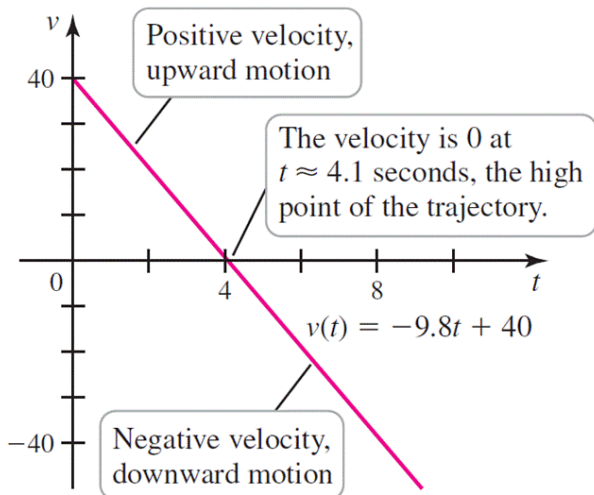


Figure: (Publisher Figure 4.90)

Example 7 (p. 319)

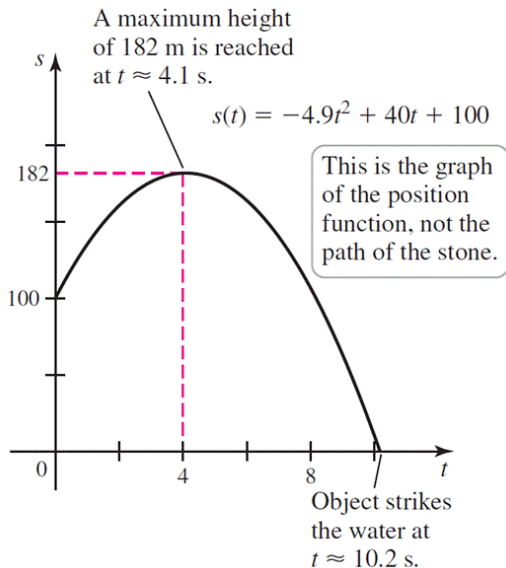
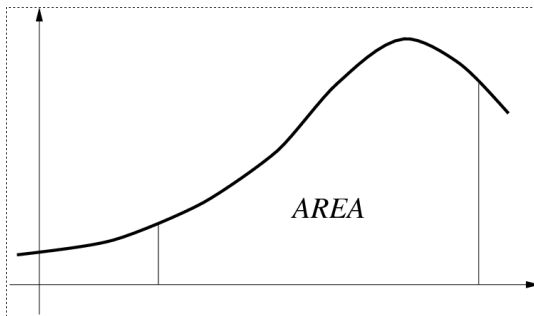


Figure: (Publisher Figure 4.91)

Area under curve

We shall consider **continuous functions** defined on a **closed interval** only. The aim is to **develop a theory** that can be used to find area of the region **under** the given function.



Example

We consider the problem of finding the **area under** the straight line $f(x) = x$ for the interval $0 \leq x \leq 1$.

We **divide** the interval $[0, 1]$ into five subintervals of equal width. By a **partition** of $[0, 1]$ with **five points**: $\{x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5\}$ of $[0, 1]$. So we have the subintervals:

$$[x_0, x_1] = [0, 1/5]$$

$$[x_1, x_2] = [1/5, 2/5]$$

$$[x_2, x_3] = [2/5, 3/5]$$

$$[x_3, x_4] = [3/5, 4/5]$$

$$[x_4, x_5] = [4/5, 5/5]$$

Upper sum

We consider the **maximum values** attained by f in **each** of the above intervals:

$$f(x_1) = f(1/5) = 1/5,$$

$$f(x_2) = f(2/5) = 2/5,$$

$$f(x_3) = f(3/5) = 3/5,$$

$$f(x_4) = f(4/5) = 4/5,$$

$$f(x_5) = f(5/5) = 5/5 = 1.$$

Let us **sum the areas of the five rectangles** each of which has the **maximum height** in $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ and with base $1/n$. Thus we have

$$\begin{aligned}\overline{S}_5 &= f\left(\frac{1}{5}\right) \frac{1}{5} + f\left(\frac{2}{5}\right) \frac{1}{5} + f\left(\frac{3}{5}\right) \frac{1}{5} + f\left(\frac{4}{5}\right) \frac{1}{5} + f\left(\frac{5}{5}\right) \frac{1}{5} \\ &= \frac{1}{25}(1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5) = \frac{15}{25} = \frac{3}{5},\end{aligned}$$

is called an **upper sum** of f over $[0, 1]$ **with respect** to the above **partition**. The approximation $3/5$ is **larger than** the actual area.

Lower sum

We consider the **minimum values** attained by f in **each** of the above intervals:

$$f(x_0) = f(0/5) = 0/5,$$

$$f(x_1) = f(1/5) = 1/5,$$

$$f(x_2) = f(2/5) = 2/5,$$

$$f(x_3) = f(3/5) = 3/5,$$

$$f(x_4) = f(4/5) = 4/5.$$

Let us **sum the areas of the five rectangles** each of which has the **minimum height** in $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ and with base $1/n$. Thus we have

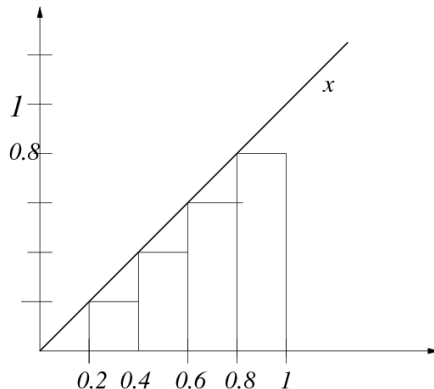
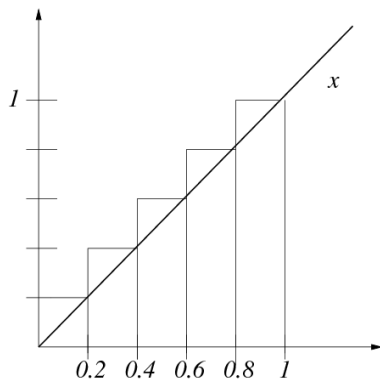
$$\begin{aligned} \underline{S}_5 &= f\left(\frac{0}{5}\right) \frac{1}{5} + f\left(\frac{1}{5}\right) \frac{1}{5} + f\left(\frac{2}{5}\right) \frac{1}{5} + f\left(\frac{3}{5}\right) \frac{1}{5} + f\left(\frac{4}{5}\right) \frac{1}{5} \\ &= \frac{1}{25} (0 + 1 + 2 + 3 + 4) = \frac{10}{25} = \frac{2}{5}, \end{aligned}$$

is called an **lower sum** of f over $[0, 1]$ with respect to the above **partition**. The approximation $2/25$ is **smaller than** the actual area.

Upper and Lower sums figures

Suppose the value of the area that we are to find is A . Then we clearly see from the figure below that the following inequalities **must hold**:

$$\frac{2}{5} = \underline{S}_5 \leq A \leq \overline{S}_5 = \frac{3}{5}.$$



Upper and lower sums: general case

It is also clear that the above argument that we divide $[0, 1]$ into five equal intervals is nothing special. Hence the same argument applies for any number of intervals. Hence we must have

$$\underline{S}_n \leq A \leq \bar{S}_n, \quad (2)$$

where n is any positive integer. We partition $[0, 1]$ into n equal subintervals:

$$\{x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n\} = \left\{0, \frac{1}{n}, \frac{2}{n}, \dots, \frac{n-1}{n}, \frac{n}{n}\right\}.$$

and the width of each of the subintervals of $1/n$.

Upper sum: general case

Hence the upper sum is

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{S}_n &= f\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \frac{1}{n} + f\left(\frac{2}{n}\right) \frac{1}{n} + \cdots + f\left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right) \frac{1}{n} + f\left(\frac{n}{n}\right) \frac{1}{n} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \frac{1}{n} + \frac{2}{n} \frac{1}{n} + \cdots + \frac{n-1}{n} \frac{1}{n} + \frac{n}{n} \frac{1}{n} \\ &= \frac{1}{n^2} (1 + 2 + 3 + \cdots + (n-1) + n) \\ &= \frac{1}{n^2} \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right).\end{aligned}$$

Note that we have used the **fundamental formula** that

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \cdots + (n-1) + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

Lower sum: general case

Hence the lower sum is

$$\begin{aligned}
 \underline{S}_n &= f\left(\frac{0}{n}\right) \frac{1}{n} + f\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \frac{1}{n} + \cdots + f\left(\frac{n-2}{n}\right) \frac{1}{n} + f\left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right) \frac{1}{n} \\
 &= \frac{1}{n} \frac{0}{n} + \frac{1}{n} \frac{1}{n} + \cdots + \frac{n-2}{n} \frac{1}{n} + \frac{n-1}{n} \frac{1}{n} \\
 &= \frac{1}{n^2} (0 + 1 + 2 + \cdots + (n-2) + n-1) \\
 &= \frac{1}{n^2} \frac{(n-1)n}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right).
 \end{aligned}$$

We deduce that

$$\frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \leq A \leq \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right), \quad \text{for all } n.$$

Letting $n \rightarrow +\infty$ gives that $\frac{1}{2} \leq A \leq \frac{1}{2}$. That is $A = 1/2$ and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \bar{S}_n = 1/2 = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \underline{S}_n.$$

Riemann sums

We consider a closed interval $[a, b]$ and let

$$P = \{x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n\}, \quad \Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1} = \frac{b-a}{n}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

to be any points lying inside $[a, b]$. Let $f(x)$ be a continuous function defined on $[a, b]$. Then we define a Riemann sum of $f(x)$ over $[a, b]$ with respect to partition P to be the sum

$$f(x_1^*) \Delta x_1 + f(x_2^*) \Delta x_2 + \dots + f(x_n^*) \Delta x_n$$

where x_i^* is an arbitrary point lying in $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Depending on the choices of x_i^* , we have

1. Left Riemann sum if $x_i^* = x_{i-1}$;
2. Right Riemann sum if $x_i^* = x_i$;
3. Mid-point Riemann sum if $x_i^* = (x_{i-1} + x_i)/2$.

Riemann sum figure

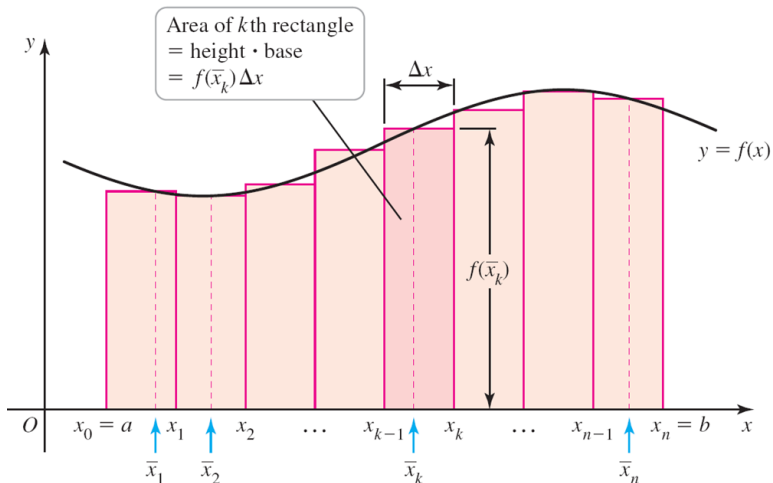


Figure: (Publisher Figure 5.8)

Left Riemann sum figure

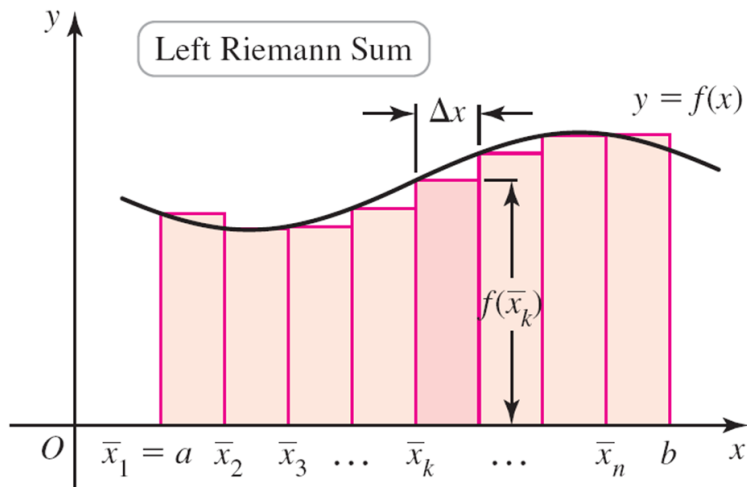


Figure: (Publisher Figure 5.9)

Right Riemann sum figure

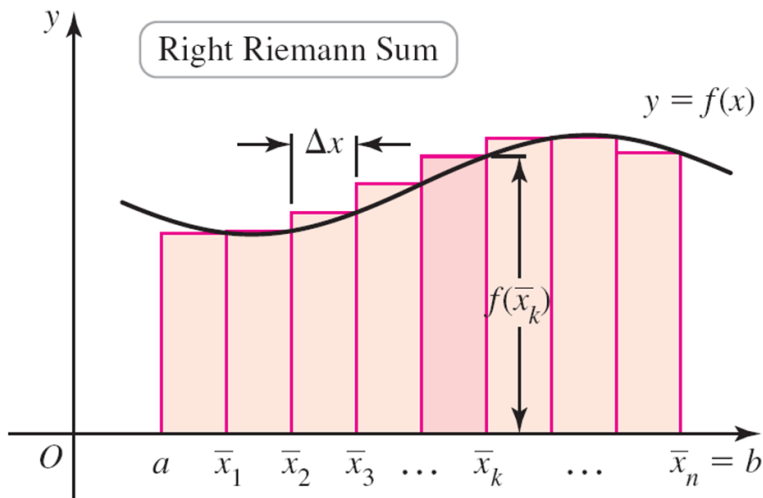


Figure: (Publisher Figure 5.10)

Mid-point Riemann sum figure

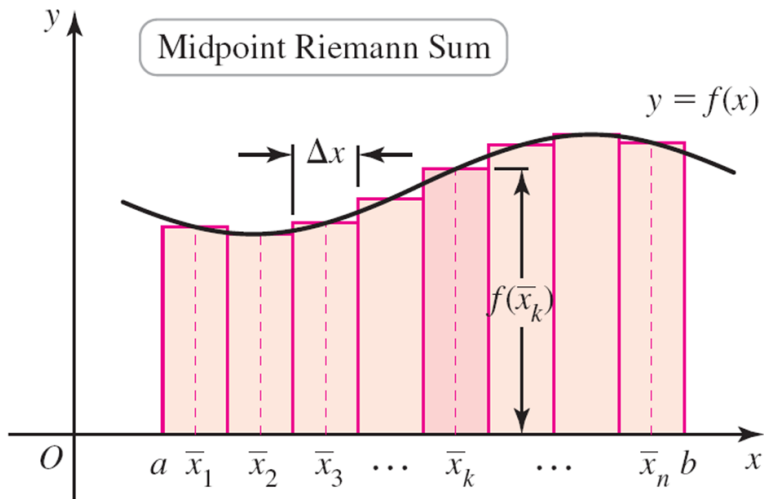


Figure: (Publisher Figure 5.11)

Riemann sum of Sine

We compute various Riemann sums under the sine curve from $x = 0$ to $x = \pi/2$ with **six intervals**. So we have

$$\Delta x = \frac{b - a}{n} = \frac{\pi/2 - 0}{6} = \frac{\pi}{12}.$$

- **Left Riemann sum** gives

$$f(x_1^*) \Delta x_1 + f(x_2^*) \Delta x_2 + \cdots + f(x_n^*) \Delta x_n \approx 0.863$$

- **Right Riemann sum** gives

$$f(x_1^*) \Delta x_1 + f(x_2^*) \Delta x_2 + \cdots + f(x_n^*) \Delta x_n \approx 1.125$$

- **Mid-point Riemann sum** gives

$$f(x_1^*) \Delta x_1 + f(x_2^*) \Delta x_2 + \cdots + f(x_n^*) \Delta x_n \approx 1.003$$

So we have $0.863 \leq 1.003 \leq 1.125$.

Partition of Riemann sum of Sine

Table 5.2

x	$f(x)$
0	1
0.5	3
1.0	4.5
1.5	5.5
2.0	6.0

Figure: (Publisher Figure 5.2)

Partition of Riemann sum of Sine

THEOREM 5.1 Sums of Positive Integers

Let n be a positive integer.

Sum of a constant c :

$$\sum_{k=1}^n c = cn$$

Sum of the first n integers:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

Sum of squares of the first n integers:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

Sum of cubes of the first n integers:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$$

Figure: (Publisher Theorem 5.1)

Example 5 (p. 334)

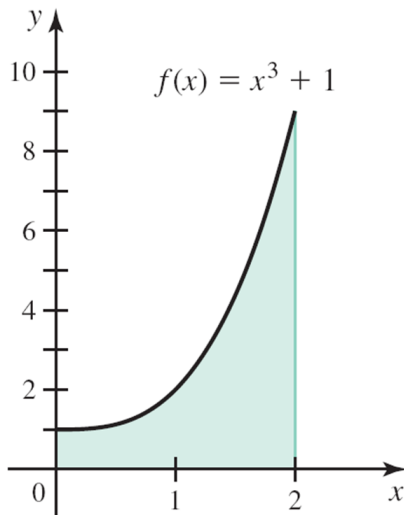


Figure: (Publisher Figure 5.15)

Example 5 (p. 334)

After choosing a partition that divides $[0, 2]$ into 50 subintervals:

$$\Delta x_k = x_k - x_{k-1} = \frac{2 - 0}{50} = \frac{1}{25} = 0.04.$$

The Right Riemann Sum is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^{50} f(x_k^*) \Delta x_k &= \sum_{k=1}^{50} f(x_k) (x_k - x_{k-1}) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{50} f\left(\frac{k}{25}\right) (0.04) = \sum_{k=1}^{50} \left[\left(\frac{k}{25}\right)^3 + 1\right] (0.04) \\ &= \left[\frac{1}{25^3} \left(\frac{50 \cdot 51}{2}\right)^2 + 50\right] (0.04) = 6.1616. \end{aligned}$$

Example 5 (p. 334) II

The **Left Riemann Sum** is given by

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{k=0}^{49} f(x_k^*) \Delta x_{k+1} &= \sum_{k=0}^{49} f(x_k) (x_{k+1} - x_k) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{49} f\left(\frac{k}{25}\right) (0.04) = \sum_{k=0}^{49} \left[\left(\frac{k}{25}\right)^3 + 1\right] (0.04) \\ &= \left[\frac{1}{25^3} \left(\frac{49 \cdot 50}{2}\right)^2 + 50\right] (0.04) = 5.8416.\end{aligned}$$

Example 5 (p. 334) III

After choosing a partition that divides $[0, 2]$ into n subintervals:

$$\Delta x_k = x_k - x_{k-1} = \frac{2 - 0}{n} = \frac{2}{n}.$$

The **Right Riemann Sum** is given by

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*) \Delta x_k &= \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k) \frac{2}{n} \\ &= \frac{2}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \left[\left(\frac{2k}{n} \right)^3 + 1 \right] = \frac{2}{n} \left(\frac{2^3}{n^3} \sum_{k=1}^n k^3 + \sum_{k=1}^n 1 \right) \\ &= \frac{2}{n} \left(\frac{2^3}{n^3} \cdot \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4} + n \right) \\ &= 2 \left[2 \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^2 + 1 \right] \rightarrow 6,\end{aligned}$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Example 5 (p. 334) III

The **Left Riemann Sum** is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f(x_k^*) \Delta x_{k+1} &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f(x_k) \cdot \frac{2}{n} \\
 &= \frac{2}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \left[\left(\frac{2k}{n} \right)^3 + 1 \right] = \frac{2}{n} \left(\frac{2^3}{n^3} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} k^3 + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} 1 \right) \\
 &= \frac{2}{n} \left(\frac{2^3}{n^3} \cdot \frac{n^2(n-1)^2}{4} + n \right) = 2 \left[2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{n} \right)^2 + 1 \right] \rightarrow 6,
 \end{aligned}$$

In fact, we have

$$4 \left(1 - \frac{1}{n} \right)^2 + 2 \leq A \leq 4 \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^2 + 2$$

to hold for every integer n . So $A = 6$.

Exercises

- (p. 338) Write the following sum in **summation notation**:

$$4 + 9 + 14 + \cdots + 44.$$

- (p. 339) Given that $\sum_{k=1}^4 f(1+k) \cdot 1$ is a **Riemann sum** of a certain function f over an interval $[a, b]$ with a partition of n subdivisions. Identify the f , $[a, b]$ and n .
- Let $f(x) = x^2$ and let A be the area under f over the interval $[0, 1]$. Show that the following inequalities

$$\frac{1}{3}\left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)\left(1 - \frac{1}{2n}\right) \leq A \leq \frac{1}{3}\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)\left(1 + \frac{1}{2n}\right).$$

Then show that the area $A = \frac{1}{3}$.

Definite Integrals

DEFINITION Definite Integral

A function f defined on $[a, b]$ is **integrable** on $[a, b]$ if $\lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n f(\bar{x}_k) \Delta x_k$ exists (over all partitions of $[a, b]$ and all choices of \bar{x}_k on a partition). This limit is the **definite integral of f from a to b** , which we write

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n f(\bar{x}_k) \Delta x_k.$$

Figure: (Publisher Figure p. 344)

Definite Integral notation

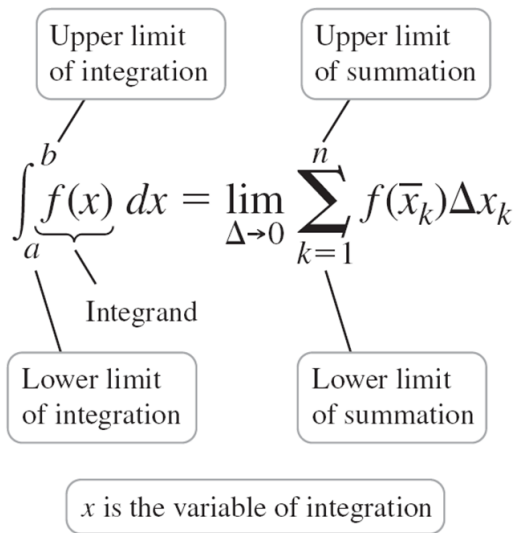


Figure: (Publisher Figure 5.21)

Integrable functions

Theorem 5.2 Let f be a continuous function except on a *finite number of discontinuities* over the interval $[a, b]$. Then f is *integrable* on $[a, b]$. That is,

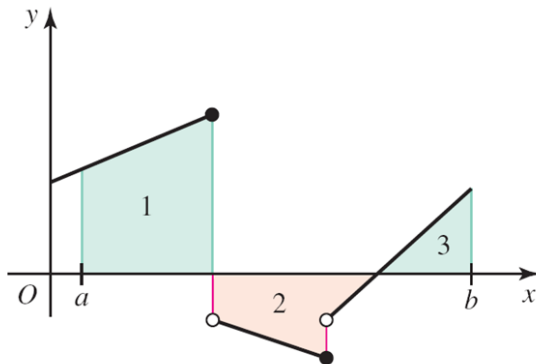
$$\lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*) \Delta x_k = \int_a^b f(x) dx,$$

exists *irrespective* to the x_k^* and the partition $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$ chosen.
So

- Since $f(x) = x^2$ is continuous over $[0, 1]$ so it is *integrable* and $\int_0^1 x^2 dx = \frac{1}{2}$ according to a previous calculation.
- Since $f(x) = x^3$ is continuous over $[0, 1]$ so it is *integrable* and $\int_0^1 x^3 dx = \frac{1}{3}$ according to a previous calculation.

Piecewise continuous functions

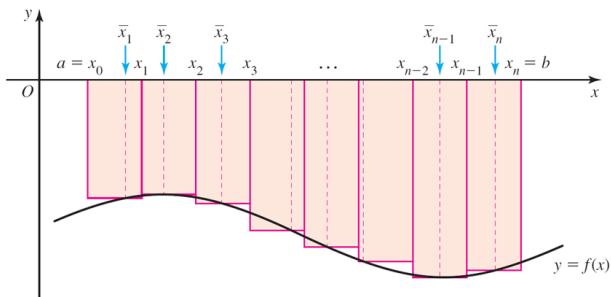
The following function has a **finite number of discontinuities** and so is integrable. However, we note that **part 2** of the area is **negative**:



A bounded piecewise continuous function is integrable.

Figure: (Publisher Figure 5.23)

Negative area



The Riemann sum
$$\sum_{k=1}^n f(\bar{x}_k) \Delta x$$
 approximates the negative of the area of the region bounded between the x -axis and the curve.

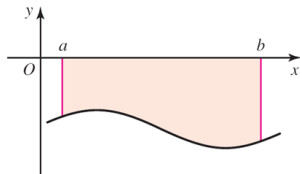


FIGURE 5.18

Figure: (Publisher Figure 5.18)

Negative area

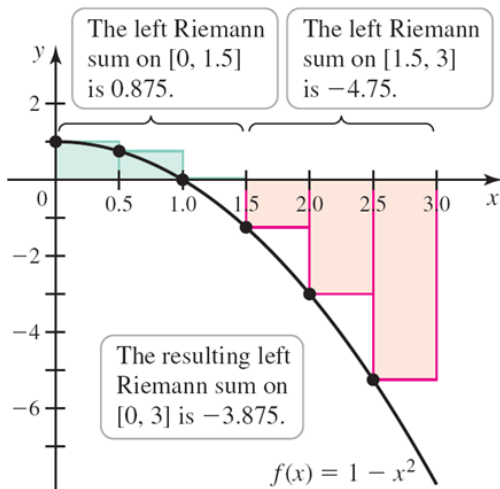


Figure: (Publisher Figure 5.17)

Net area

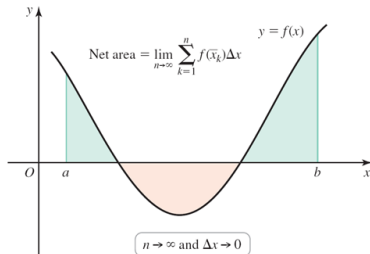
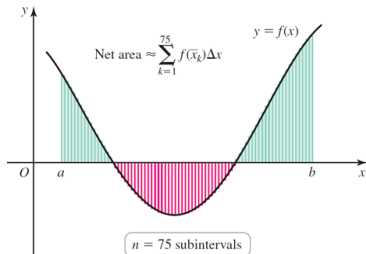
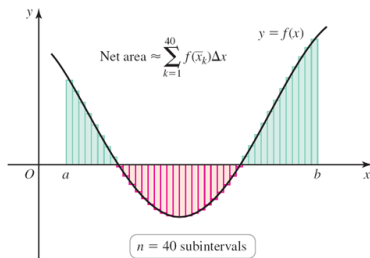
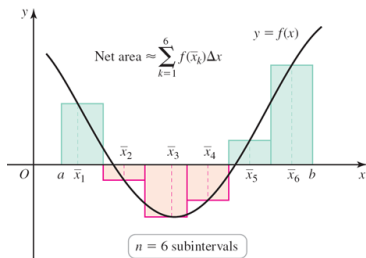
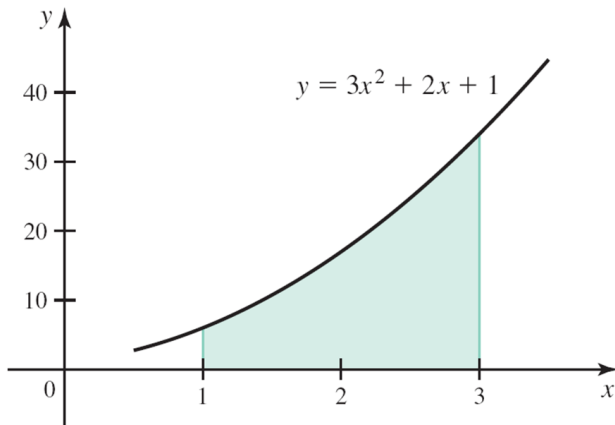


Figure: (Publisher Figure 5.20)

Recognizing integral



$$\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n (3\bar{x}_k^2 + 2\bar{x}_k + 1)\Delta x_k = \int_1^3 (3x^2 + 2x + 1)dx$$

Figure: (Publisher Figure 5.24)

Computing net area

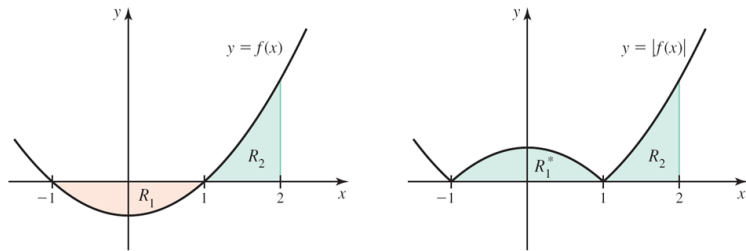


Figure: (Publisher Figure 5.31)

Exercises

1. Write down the **right Riemann sum** for $\int_0^2 \sqrt{4 - x^2} dx$;
2. Interpret the sum $\lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{3k}{n(1 + \frac{3k}{n})}$ as a certain **Riemann integral**.
3. Let

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 2x - 2, & \text{if } x \leq 2; \\ -x + 4, & \text{if } x > 2. \end{cases}$$

Compute both the **net area** and **actual area** of $\int_0^5 f(t) dt$.

Hints to Exercises

The **net area** of the last example is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^2 (2x - 2) dx + \int_2^5 (-x + 4) dx &= (x^2 - 2x)|_0^2 + (-x^2/2 + 4x)|_2^5 \\ &= (2^2 - 2 \cdot 2) + \frac{1}{2}(2^2 - 5^2) + (20 - 8) = 0 + -\frac{1}{2} \cdot 21 + 12 = \frac{3}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

The **actual area** is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 (2x - 2) dx + \left| \int_1^2 (2x - 2) dx \right| + \int_2^4 (-x + 4) dx + \left| \int_4^5 (-x + 4) dx \right| \\ = \left| (x^2 - 2x)|_0^1 \right| + (x^2 - 2x)|_1^2 + (-x^2/2 + 4x)|_2^4 + \left| (-x^2/2 + 4x)|_4^5 \right| \\ = |-1| + 1 + 2 + \left| -\frac{1}{2} \right| = \frac{9}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

Properties of Definite Integral

Let f and g be integrable functions on an interval that contains a , b , and c .

1. $\int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$ Definition

2. $\int_b^a f(x) dx = -\int_a^b f(x) dx$ Definition

3. $\int_a^b [f(x) + g(x)] dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_a^b g(x) dx$

4. $\int_a^b cf(x) dx = c \int_a^b f(x) dx$ For any constant c

5. $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx$

6. The function $|f|$ is integrable and $\int_a^b |f(x)| dx$ is the sum of the areas of the regions bounded by the graph of f and the x -axis on $[a, b]$.

Figure: (Publisher Table 5.4)

Sum of integrals

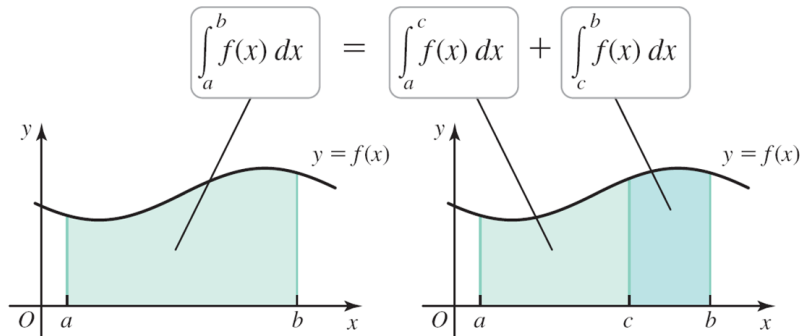


Figure: (Publisher Figure 5.29)